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ABSTRACT

These five papers address various issues related to bringing about curriculum change. The first focuses on developing a strategy. It discusses the concept of performance gaps, identifying the cause of the performance gap, and involvement in decision making. Paper 2 on the nature of the proposed change provides a number of ideas or frameworks for thinking about change. The third paper describes a number of well-documented models or strategies that can be called upon by those responsible for bringing about change. The three major models considered are the research, development, and diffusion model; the social interaction model; and the problem solving model. The fourth paper focuses on managing resistance to change. Emphasis is on possible sources of resistance. The final paper provides checklists to aid in the estimation of resistance. A balance sheet is then presented into which the factors working for and against the curriculum change can be arranged. (YLB)

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Bringing about curriculum change
Part A Developing a strategy

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Date

March 1988

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BRINGING ABOUT CURRICULUM CHANGE
PAPER 1 - DEVELOPING A STRATEGY

M J Field

Introduction

An important need for those planning curriculum change is that of having an awareness of the positive and negative forces which may be generated by it.

However, the presence of negative forces needs to be put into context for as Dalin (1978) suggests-

> "Any significant educational change effort will face a number of barriers. If it is to succeed, strategies will indeed need to be developed to overcome these... It should not, however, be too readily assumed that all barriers should be overcome. 'Barriers' may be indicators of basic problems in the innovation itself e.g. how it is conceived, or in the structure in which it is developed, or in its management."

The Concept of Performance Gaps

The main reason given for the need for curriculum change is that of a perceived 'gap' in the existing provision.

Zaltman, Florio & Sikorski (1977, p 21) describe this concept of a 'performance gap' in the following terms-

> "Performance gaps, or felt discrepancies between what is and what ought to be, provide the major source for change in education. Such gaps develop through a variety of conditions, both internal and external to the system. Similarly, resistance to change derives from cultural, social and psychological forces within and outside of the school system itself."

Downs (1966, p 191) also argues for the concept of performance gaps as a stimulus to change-

> "Certain forces in education act to create or intensify performance, or discrepancies between what an individual or group ought to be doing."

Taking the analysis further, it would appear that those who are in positions of being able to bring about curriculum change must have the ability either to cause new performance gaps or capitalise on existing ones in order to use them as levers to bring about change. Further, they must also have the influence (power) necessary to supply the direction and means needed to close the gap. Therefore, having perceived the gap, there are two main options available.

(i) To life up performance

1

By initiating actions designed to bring the potential for performance up to the level needed to close the gap.

(ii) To lower expectations

To lower expectations of the desired level of performance to the point where it is in line with actual performance.

Whilst the second option may, on occasions, become a pragmatic necessity only the first one can be said to bring about an actual change.

Identifying the Cause of the Performance Gap

If the proposed change is to be effective in closing the performance gap it is necessary to identify what might have caused it in the first place. Zaltman, Duncan and Holbeck (1973) have identified unrealistic expectation as one of the major factors which might cause them to develop. They stress this particularly in situations where unrealistic expectations are attached to the outcome of a proposed change. They go further by suggesting that when disappointments develop after the adoption and implementation of a particular change they may form the basis of resistance against any future changes.

From this it can be seen that it is particularly important not to over estimate the 'pay off' of any proposed curriculum change. If the outcome is lower than predicted then you will be forced to either-

(i) take steps to adjust expectations downwards, or,

(ii) take steps to adjust performance upwards

(i) Adjusting Expectations Downwards

This can be achieved by-

Showing that the initial expectations resulted from claims which could not easily be satisfied.

Pointing out that uncontrollable circumstances are restricting the ability of the innovation achieving its full potential.

Demonstrating that other users are expecting even poorer results.

(ii) Adjusting Performance Upwards

In situations where the high expectations cannot be adjusted downwards then it becomes necessary to take steps to adjust performance upwards.

Staff development and INSET are the prime vehicles for raising the awareness of staff to the presence of performance gaps.

A major fault in many curriculum change programmes is their failure to use INSET programmes to prepare for and to reinforce the proposed changes.

This situation will be made more difficult where the staff involved have a strongly introvert orientation. The importance of contact and interaction with new influences outside the colleges organisation has long been identified as a potential force for helping change (Carlson: 1965, Rogers & Shoemaker: 1971, Zaltman, Duncan & Holbeck: 1973, Pincus: 1974). Nelson (1970) also refers to the degree to which this influence occurs and the duration of what he calls the 'change-orientated' effect. Arguing that an external stimulation to change is more likely not to have a lasting effect, he goes on to suggest that an external orientation, often referred to as 'cosmopolitanism' increases the likelihood that members of any system will encounter new ideas.

This lack of a 'cosmopolitan' orientation amongst the staff might mean that there will be no pressures coming upward from the staff for change. For this to have taken place the staff will have to view part of the existing curriculum arrangements to be below their own expectations and therefore exerted pressure on the management for action and support to bring about change. If this is not present then all the staff pressure will be directed towards maintaining the old systems or styles of curriculum. Even the introduction of new staff into the organisation may not result in their support for the proposed changes, although Corwin (1972) suggests that-

> "The introduction of new staff, expecially when they have different and perhaps higher expectations, can result in a general raising of expectation levels and the acceptance of the possible pressure of a performance gap."

In similar vein they suggest that when this happens the 'missionary effect' can develop-

> "...by communicating to their colleagues that better alternative solutions to the problem are available and have been used successfully elsewhere, they can instal in existing staff a dissatisfaction with current practices."

When none of these forces are present then those trying to bring about change are faced with having to work against what Professor Huberman (1973 p 9) calls the 'critical mass' and 'critical threshold' factors-

"The 'critical mass' factor represents the amount of pressure to change which is being exerted in relation to the total size of the system.

> The 'critical threshold' factor is similar to the 'take off' point in economic growth which is reached when a certain proportion of the national income is invested over and above the investment required to maintain the country's population at the same standard of living."

Both these factors represent the amount of energy and effort which may be required to bring about any proposed curriculum change.

The absence of external levers can also present problems for, as Stiles & Robinson (1973, p 253) argue, educational institutions seldom change without external pressure-

> "When considering the roles of educational professionals in advancing change, a distinction needs to be made between initiation, the function of conceiving and introducing new practices, and implementation, a process of enacting changes that others have initiated. By this type of comparison, it is a myth that educational administrators, supervisors, teachers, and professors are leaders for change, despite the fact that they are always involved when changes occur. What school and college personnel do is implement or carry out changes imposed by outside forces. In some cases, educators are sufficiently sensitive to emerging external mandates for change and so skilful in adapting to them that they, like good politicians, actually take credit for new developments. Riding the groundswells of change, however, involves a kind of brinkmanship that few educators are willing to risk. To move ahead of public opinion is to lose the game, which may mean loss of employment. Chances of failure are so great that most educational professionals choose to react to and implement, rather than lead change."

Involvement in Decision Taking

According to Dalin (1978, p 19)-

> "The classical problem in the management of educational change is the fact that the groups we are talking about namely (1) those who benefit, (2) those who decide and (3) those who have to change, are often individuals and groups with different roles. They live and work apart from each other and the result is alienation."

Dalin goes on to argue that if understanding about the proposed change is to be improved then contact between the various groups will need to be increased. He illustrates the argument with the following diagrams.

Key

1. Those who benefit

2. Those who decide

3. Those who have to change

In the above situation the groups have no contact, no common members and no common identity or aim.

In the second situation there is overlap and therefore contact which can lead to points of agreement, identification, roles, responsibilities and norms. The change is therefore likely to affect real needs and energies for development and implementation are likely to be easier to mobilise.

A situation involving no contact during the decision making process between the groups involved will result in an opportunity being missed of gaining commitment and a higher possibility of resistance to the proposed change.

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Bringing about curriculum change
Part B The nature of the proposed change

Author

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BRINGING ABOUT CURRICULUM CHANGE
PAPER 2 - THE NATURE OF THE PROPOSED CHANGE

M J Field

Introduction

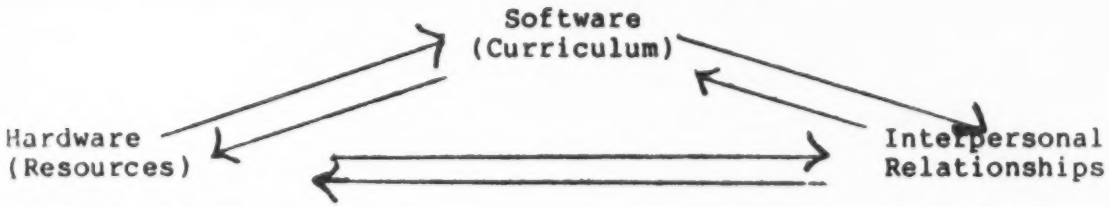
If the proposed curriculum change is to be effective then there must be absolute clarity about what exactly has to be changed. Confusion about the exact nature of the change will inevitably lead to confusion and a lack of confidence in the decision takers. The rest of this paper provides a number of ideas or frameworks for thinking about change.

Frameworks

Taking a very simplistic view of educational change Morrish (1976 p 32) suggests that it might involve one or more of the following interrelated components-

Hardware (materials, equipment, rooms, resources)
Software (curriculum)
Interpersonal relations (individuals and group relationships)

The effects of the three are shown diagramatically below-



Hardware Changes

Changes in equipment, materials, rooms and other resources often have a 'knock-on' effect upon the interpersonal relationships between staff. For example the introduction of new technology such as computer software can raise the level of expectations in performance along with pressures on staff to use the new programmes.

Stiles & Robinson (1973, p 264-265) argue the same for knowledge generally-

> "As knowledge is verified and refined, it leads to modifications in both curricula and institution. A recent example is the expansion of knowledge about the space sciences. It passes from inclusion in space programs at all levels of the school system. New knowledge about how children learn to read or respond to particular kinds of reinforcement can alter teaching procedures. Similarly, knowledge about cultural characteristics of different types of students can shape goal priorities and educational services as well as invalidate the results of culturally biased intelligence and achievement tests."

There are examples in further education where advances in knowledge or methods of certification have brought about the need for new teaching practices and organisational changes.

Software

Changes within the curriculum, in its range or content, will affect the hardware requirements. Further, any changes in teaching and learning methods will involve changes in both hard and software and may have repercussions on the pattern of personal relationships between staff.

Interpersonal Relationships

As new techniques are introduced, such as team teaching, they affect both the role and inter-role relationships between staff. Unless these are carefully planned and supported with INSET, performance gaps will develop as the organisational roles and power relationships change.

The new situation may result in dissatisfaction due to a newly perceived lack of infulence or power. Coupled to this may be the feeling of not being cared about by the organisation, which may also become a source of resistance. If the change causes the members of staff to feel that they are being under used or under valued, this may lead to pressures for new opportunities to be created to use up the unused abilities. To counter these possibilities, if management can provide some form of protection against the social risks associated with change, such as loss of status, this will encourage staff to become more adventurous and willing to participate.

Additional frameworks are worth exploring.

Dalin (1978 p 20) suggests that-

"In the attempt to analyse the phenomenon of educational change, one needs to be considerably more precise and specific... I have used a 'typology of innovations' with the following dimensions-

Category 1: Objectives & Functions

Innovations mainly concerned with the objectives and functions of the school in the broader social and economic context.

Category 2: Organisation & Administration

Innovation mainly concerned with the organisation and administration of the education system.

Category 3: Roles and Role Relationships

Innovations mainly concerned with role definitions and role relationships. These are clearly related to Category 2, but the object is not to improve techniques and procedures, but to improve the roles which individuals perform and the relationship between individuals and groups.

Category 4: Curriculum

Innovations mainly concerned with curriculum, its aims, content, methods, evaluation, material and internal organisation of instruction."

A further example is given by the Rand Corporation (1975) in their 'change agent study'. They outline the following dimensions of change which they see as being critical-

1. Centrality

'Centrality' means the extent to which an innovation seeks to change the goals, norms or patterns of behaviour that are perceived to be core or central to the institutional setting.

2. Complexity

'Complexity' refers to the extent to which a project proposes a relatively complicated far-reaching treatment and the extent to which that innovation attempts to affect behaviour and attitudes of a number of groups within the institutional setting.

3. Nature and Amount of Change

This differs from the preceding two in that it refers to the requirements made specifically on the individual participant, not on groups or units within the organisation. The important aspect of the nature of change is the level of difficulty which an innovation presents for an individual implementor.

4. Consonance

This concept refers to the degree of 'fit' between the goals, values and practices of an innovation and those of the adopting institution.

5. Visibility

This concept refers to the extent to which innovative efforts are observed, monitored by non-participants both within and outside the institution, i.e. the degree to which the pace of implementation and success or failure are 'public'.

Havelock (1973, p 10) also provides exemplification of categories relating to how much change may be required-

1. Change in Size & Scope

There is the change in size and scope of the operation, in which decisions have to be made concerning the capital which is available, the capital equipment to be selected, the estimated labour to be employed, and the amount of space to be filled.

2. Changes in Skills through SD and INSET

There is the acquiring of new skills, such as through INSET associated with new curricula, new teaching methods, use of new hardware.

3. Changes in Goals

Moves towards different objectives which alter the role of staff, i.e. open access.

4. Changes in Values & Orientations

This involves a change in the values held by particular staff which requires a change in the orientation of their thinking and subsequently their approach.

Dalin (1978, p 21) states-

"The problem with any classification is that real-life situations are not clear-cut and can only be understood as a combination of various elements. It is, therefore, more a question of finding the actual 'mix' of the various dimensions to describe the characteristics of the innovation.

In a further attempt to describe dimensions of given innovations, it is useful to have the following dimensions in mind.

1. Technological Change

There is evidence to suggest that technology is a major variable affecting organisations.

2. Behavioural Change

Most change efforts require changes in individual behaviour. For example, the move towards student based learning requires a behavioural change on the part of both staff and students.

3. Organisational Change

Change often affects a number of staff and therefore has implications for group norms and organisational structures, including changes in decision making and task structures.

4. Social Change

By 'social change' is meant the redistribution of power, resources and opportunities within a society... Social Change is seldom achieved through educational change alone.

A further level of analysis is to ask what is it that must change and what is the level of difficulty and amount of time involved.

He puts forward the following illustration of the kind of correlation between the length of time required to implement a change in relation to its complexity.

Number of participants required	Type of Innovation	Length of time required to implement the idea
(many).....	Organisational.....	
(several).....	Instructional.....	
(few).....	Methodological.....	

Havelock (p 8.48 - 8.51) goes on to suggest that six types of change may be required for adaptation or adoption.

1. Substitution

Probably one of the most common forms of change covering such things as the replacement of a text book, learning method, piece of hardware or a member of staff.

2. Alteration

Covers the alteration in existing methods, staff or structures.

3. Addition

Something is added without changing to any serious extent the existing situation.

3. Restructuring

A material re-arrangement of the existing situation.

5. Elimination of Old Behavioural Practices and Habits

In which it is considered that no parts of the existing situation are satisfactory and therefore need to be entirely eliminated. New patterns are therefore introduced.

6. Reinforcing Old Behaviours

in which new knowledge or behaviours are introduced to reinforce the existing situation.

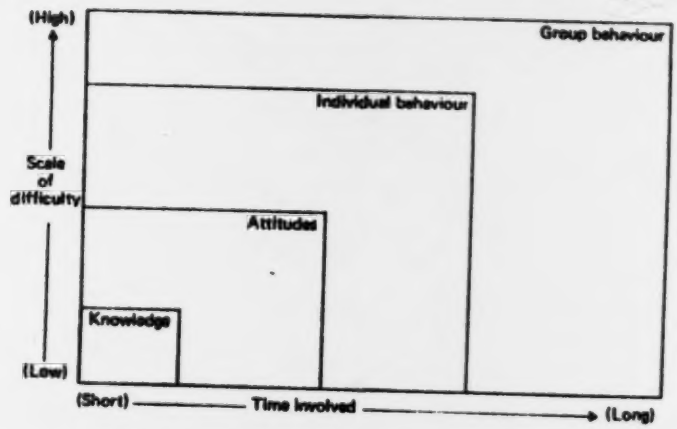
Miller (1967, p 369) suggests that in making an estimate of the difficulty, or the facility, of affecting change the two main variables appear to be-

1. The complexity of the operation itself.

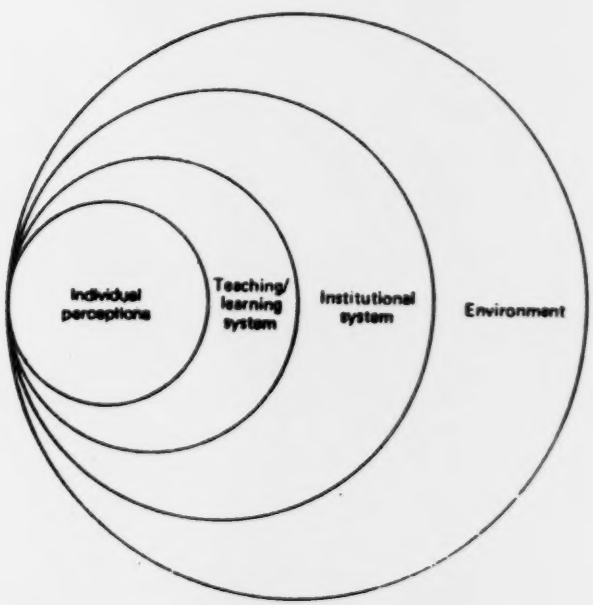
2. The type of behaviour demanded from those required to change.

PERSONAL PERSPECTIVE

Change may also be analysed from the point of view of the time required for its effective consolidation. The following diagrammes from Morrish illustrate this point well.



Relative Time and Difficulty in Making Various Changes



Linkage in the Process of Educational Change

6

ADOPTION OF CHANGE

Pincus (1974, P 111) suggests that the desire for a favourable self-image may lead to the voluntary adoption of change if it can promote the institution as being-

'Up to-date' introducing modern equipment, new curricula, not requiring changes in bureaucratic organisation of staff roles, reduction of class sizes, use of teacher notes, team teaching.

'Efficient' adoption of electronic data processing, new budgeting and accounting systems.

'Professional' adoption of curricula that are espoused by the educational leadership, hiring well trained teachers, subsidising in-service training and workshops, consulting with faculty of leading schools of education.

'Responsive' establishing formalised links to parents, using blue-ribbon advisory committees to submit reports on policy issues, establishing counselling and guidance functions, establishing special programmes for handicapped, gifted, slow learners ... etc., providing vocational programmes that respond to needs of local industry, offering a variety of adult estension courses.

ORGANISATIONAL INFLUENCES

Miles (1967, p 57) has analysed and listed a number of characteristics of educational institutions which are important to our understanding of how change can be brought about. These being-

1. Goal Confusion

Educational goals are often general in nature, sometimes characterised by ambiguity and vagueness. This is probably a reflection of the political process since education is supposed to serve the whole population and therefore a number of compromises about function will have to be made. This makes both the demonstration and measurement of success difficult.

2. Vulnerability

Educational institutions are vulnerable to influence from the environment. This is seen clearly in periods of economic decline. The education sector is to a large extent dependent on the general economic situation, and is seldom seen as an important economic factor in its own right.

3. Low Internal Interdependence

Staff are accustomed to working in self-contained classrooms. The task structure is fragmented, with little integration of responsibilities and tasks and a minimum of supervision with emphasis on face to face contact.

4. Weak Knowledge Base

The knowledge base in education is weak. We know little, in general, about teaching and learning or organisational functioning.

5. Non-Competition

Institutions usually do not compete with each other. There is little incentive and pressure for innovation and a low level of investment in research and development.

Dalin's organisational model which illustrates the dimensions and relationships which are crucial to our understanding of how colleges as organisations can be changed.

1. Environment

This dimension includes individuals, groups and institutions outside the college and recognises the forces at work in the environment, such as changing value patterns, expectations, economics, technology and social norms.

2. Values

The value dimension refers to the purpose, goals or mission of the college which can be expressed by a formal statement of goals, but which is often more expressed in the norms and realities of the daily work of the college.

3. Structure

This refers to the way the college is organised in terms of organisation charts, decision making structure, the task structure, and the use and structure of technology and equipment.

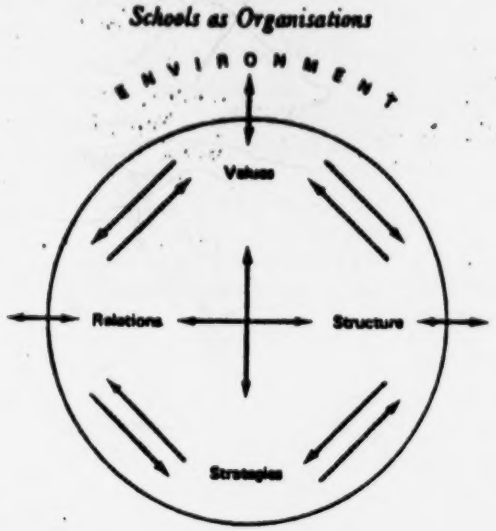
4. Relations

This refers to the relationships among individuals and between departments within the college. Particularly we include the 'quality of relations', the climate of college and the modes of conflict management.

5. Strategies

This dimension pertains to the mechanisms and methods for

managing the college, the reward structure, leadership patterns, procedures for keeping values, relations and structures in balance.



Conclusion

Dalin (p 22-23)-

It is difficult to conclude ... with a summary statement about 'what we mean by educational change'. The problem is that we mean so much by the terms. Also it has so many facets and dimensions that it is hard to use analytical terms. As a general conclusion however, I would stress the following-

1. Change is a 'Process' Phenomenon

Change takes place over time. It can be evolutionary or revolutionary in nature and it involves a number of stages, including individuals, institutions and sub-systems. It is partly determined by forces outside the control of educators or institutions within the system. The success and failure of an innovation will depend, to some extent only, on systematic efforts within the system to manage the process of change. When this is said, however, the efforts of the management process can be greatly improved by a thorough understanding of the complexities and dynamics of the change process itself.

2. Change is a 'Systematic' Phenomenon

Any change in a social system is like a chain reaction. Individuals, organisations and interest groups are linked through formal and informal connections which are influenced by external forces. The success and failures of educational change reforms are largely dependent on the relationships and strengths of these forces over time, and the way the change process is managed to cope with the systematic and dynamic nature of the situation. The question of who decides for

whom, at what cost for the individuals and institutions involved is crucial in determining the dynamics and the relationships over time.

3. Change is a 'Multi-dimensional' Phenomenon

Educational change can only be fully understood using different perspectives, including different disciplines such as economics, anthropology, sociology, psychology, administrative and organisational science and pedagogy, are important in understanding the many dimensions in the process of change. The process is 'political' and it is 'technical'. It is 'organisational' and it is 'individual'. Only a 'process analysis' that takes the characteristics of the innovation and the setting into account can grasp the full meaning of the process.

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BRINGING ABOUT CURRICULUM CHANGE
PAPER 3 MODELS FOR BRINGING ABOUT CHANGE

M J Field

Introduction

Those responsible for bringing about curriculum change have available to them a number of well documented strategies or models which they can call on for help.

The models are, of course, abstract in the sense that they are missing the influences of organisational politics and power groups. They do, however, provide a framework for thinking about change. Successful change depends on a number of variables of which Watson (p 106-115) suggests the following pre-conditions are essential-

"The participants must feel that the project is essentially their own and not wholly devised by outsiders.

The project must be whole-hartedly supported by the senior staff.

The project must be in reasonably close accord with the values and ideals of the participants.

The participants should experience support, trust, acceptance and confidence in their relations with one another.

The participants must feel assured that their autonomy and security are not in any way threatened".

Guba (1968, p 136-153) examined the processes of change in education and suggests the following typology of strategies which are related to the nature of the staff (individual/group) which are required to change. These being-

Value Strategy

The staff required to change are viewed as professional to whom appeal might be made in terms of value priorities (what is best for the students - department - rest of the staff).

Rational Strategy

The staff can be pursuaded to change on the basis of reasoned and logical arguments, supported by hard data, of the feasibility, utility and effectiveness of the proposed change.

Diadatic Strategy

The staff can be instructed (told) to change and will be willing to do so.

The staff have needs for acceptance, involvement and belonging which may be used through participation/consultation to influence them to the point of accepting the proposed change.

Economic Strategy

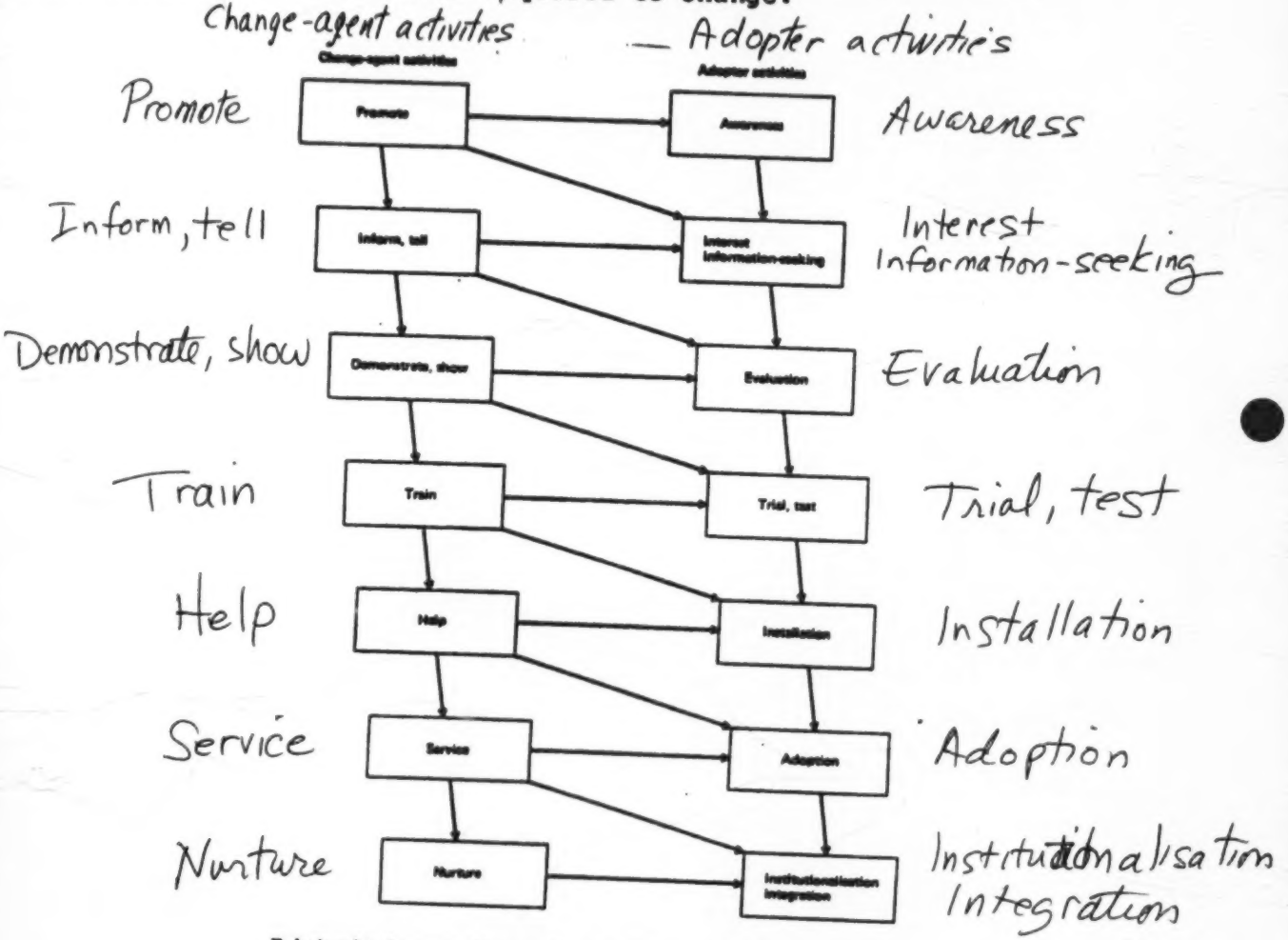
The staff are compensated to change on the basis of orders which have come from a hierarchical position in the organisation.

Authority Stategy

The staff are compelled to change on the basis of orders which have come from a hierarchical position in the organisation.

Guba goes on to relate each of the above strategies to six diffusion techniques - telling, showing, helping, involving, training and interviewing. He concludes by arguing that the technique used must be consistent with the strategy, i.e. there is no point in quoting facts and figures if the only way to approach the staff is to buy them.

Morrish (1976, p 117) combines Guba's arguments along with Havelock (1971) to show the possible links between the techniques and the activities of those required to change.



Relationship between Change-Agent Activities and Adopter-Activities

Working along similar lines Chin & Benne (1961, p32-59) have regrouped the approach to change into the area of policy making as follows-

Empirical - Rational Approach

The approach is based on the assumption that people are rational, therefore once their rational self-interest has been demonstrated they will follow it. The change therefore needs to be rationally justified, followed with evidence that the individual will directly benefit from it. The other assumption built into the approach is that reason initiates the process of change, and that the scientific approach is the best means of extending knowledge. This approach is best used when the staff are ready to accept change and when it is supported by lots of information and a staff development programme. The approach tends to be less successful when the staff are showing resistance to the proposed change.

Normative - Re educative Approach

The assumption underlying this approach is that the staff are active, not passive, that they are not waiting for solutions from outside, but would rather be involved in searching for them themselves. The approach is therefore based on a psyche-therapeutic model of change agent (counsellor) and adapter (or client) in which with the agent's help, the client is able to work out the required changes for themselves. The approach is therefore not based on providing technical training but on changing values and attitudes. In such an approach to change there are two main objectives. These being to-

improve the problem solving potential of the client(s) in particular the human relationships involved as these have a direct bearing on the functioning of the whole system..

bring self-clarity and personal development to the staff within the network or system, on the assumption that personal development will eventually lead on to changes in the organisation.

Power-coercive Approach

This approach is based on the use of political and economic sanctions to force change to take place. Such an approach can be used when legislation is involved such as changes in national examination criteria (CPVE & GCSE). The approach is less effective within a college setting as it does not always follow that the decisions from above in the hierarchy will be carried out.

In essence for change to be carried out and adopted by staff it requires that they have fresh knowledge, new skills and attitudes, which frequently need to be supported by new value orientations. At the level of groups these will need to be changes in roles, norms and relationships before acceptance is fully achieved.

Collaborative & Non-collaborative Approaches

Bennis (1966) has developed a classification which covers both planned and unplanned change. His typology includes eight discreet types of change, which he categorises as either collaborative or non-collaborative change. These being-

1. Planned Change

   When decisions are derived mutually and deliberately with an equal balance of power between the change agent and the client system, planned change is the outcome.

2. Indoctrination

   Where goals and decisions are both mutual and deliberate but a large share of the power rests with the initiators of the change, the change phenomenon would be classified as indoctrination.

3. Coercive Change

   When objectives are determined deliberately but without significant collaboration, the process is termed coercive change.

4. Technocratic Change

   Here change is realised through the collection and analysis of data. Technocratic change is both deliberate and one-sided, although there is no clear-cut relationship between change planner and change system. This kind of change occurs entirely in terms of insufficient knowledge in some area.

5. Interactional Change

   When change is unintentional and a relatively equal power distribution exists, interactional change can be said to have occured. The commitment to change when this phenomenon occurs is almost unconscious.

6. Socialisation Change

   This occurs through the interaction of two individuals who are not 'equals'. Examples of socialisation change that occur in educational settings are found between

administrators and teachers and between teachers and students.

7. Emulative Change

This occurs when staff admire and model their behaviour on their managers. When this happens emulative change occurs.

8. Natural Change

This category of natural change is meant to include any spontaneous changes which cannot be placed in any of the seven listed above.

It is likely that in making changes managers may employ several of the above types of change. Therefore the advantage of the Bennis classification is in helping planners to be aware of their own patterns of behaviour.

MODELS/FRAMEWORKS

Models Based on Individuals

Many change models are based on the individual decision maker and describe the cognitive processes through which the individual goes. The processes are argued to be the same whether the decisions are made in a group or organisational context or in isolation.

Zaltman, Florio and Sikorski (1977, p 64) suggest that although the models are oriented to the individual, several elements are parallelled to those of organisational change models. For example, nearly all of the individual models have an awareness/perception stage in which the individual becomes cognisant of a need for change or innovation. Similar processes are needed in intentional organisational change. Because of their similarity to the general models they are not expanded in this paper.

General Models

As can be seen from the text already there are a large number of models which could have been used to plan their change. However, all the models view change as an orderly process which follows a logical sequence from conception, through development, to its final application. The models tend, therefore, to emphasise activities such as planning in isolation from the other sequence of events. As the management team found, life is never this straightforward and many of the activities involved in introducing change are required to go on at the same time. The process is therefore more akin to keeping a number of spinning plates in the air at the same time, than dealing with one item at a time as suggested by the models. Although the models lack the dynamics of change they do help in the planning and understanding

of the processes involved in it.
The three major models considered are those identified by Havelock (1971) as the Research, Development and Diffusion Model, the Social Interaction Model and the Problem Solving Model.

Research, Development & Diffusion Model

Havelock (p 11-15) describes the main characteristics of this model as being-

1. Rational Sequence

   The model assumes that there will be a rational sequence of activities associated with the proposed change.

2. Planning

   The model implies that planning can be used at all stages and that all the activities associated with research and development will be co-ordinated in such a way that their logical relationship can be easily established.

3. Division of Labour

   All the work associated with the change can be assigned to individuals in terms of carefully planned roles and functions.

4. Passive Consumers

   The model assumes that there is a clearly defined audience for the change who will passively accept its consequences, provided it is delivered to them through the right channel, in the correct manner and at the right time. This will be achieved by the process of scientific evaluation at each stage of the development of the change and its dissemination.

5. High Initial Development

   Finally the model accepts that there will be high initial development costs prior to dissemination of the change. This is because the model forsees an even greater gain in the long run in terms of efficiency, quality and the capacity to reach a wider audience.

Havelock sees each of the five major steps involved in the model can, in themselves, be further sub-divided into further tasks with specific objectives, criteria and relationships to the overall process of change. A more complex version of the model has been developed by Guba and Clark (1967) a modified version of which is included below, adapted from Morrish (p 121).

A Classification Schema of Change Process

	RESEARCH	DEVELOPMENT		DIFFUSION		ADOPTION		
		Innovation	Design	Dissemination	Demonstration	Trial	Installation	Institutionalization
OBJECTIVE	To advance knowledge	To formulate a new solution to some operating problem(s), i.e. *to innovate*	To order and to systematize the components of the invented solution; to construct an innovation package for institutional use, i.e. *to engineer*	To create widespread awareness of the innovation among practitioners, i.e. *to inform*	To afford an opportunity to examine and assess operating qualities of the innovation, i.e. *to build conviction*	To build familiarity with the innovation and provide a basis for assessing the quality, value, fit, and utility of the innovation in a particular institution, i.e. *to test*	To fit the characteristics of the innovation to the characteristics of the adopting institution, i.e. *to operationalize*	To assimilate the innovation as an integral and accepted component of the system, i.e. *to establish*
CRITERIA	Validity (Internal and External)	Face validity (appropriateness) — Estimated viability — Impact (relative contribution)	Institutional feasibility — Generalizability — Performance	Intelligibility Fidelity — Pervasiveness — Impact (extent to which it effects key targets)	Credibility Convenience — Evidential assessment	Adaptability Possibility — Action	Effectiveness Efficiency —	Continuity Valuation — Support
RELATION TO CHANGE	Provides basis for innovation	Produces the innovation	Engineers and packages the innovation	Informs about the innovation	Builds conviction about the innovation	Tries out the innovation in the context of a particular situation	Operationalizes the innovation for use in a specific institution	Establishes the innovation as a part of an ongoing programme; converts it to a 'non-innovation'

Examples of the use of the model in FE are B/TEC courses and CITB, EITB training courses.

Reliance on the Enlightened Self-Interested Practitioner. One fault in the model is that it tends to underestimate the difficulties of the diffusion and adoption stages through its assumption that the 'enlightened self-interested' member of staff will ensure the eventual delivery of the change. However, when the model is used with a 'materials centred approach' such as the National Science Foundation science programmes they may be well disseminated. The key being the amount of support available to the individual member of staff which encouraged the use of the materials.

Social-Interaction Model

In this model the unit of analysis is the individual member of staff with the focus on the member of staff's perception of and their response to information coming from outside. According to Morrison (p 123) the model is based on studies which show that the most effective means of disseminating information concerned with innovation is through personal contact. The model is therefore based on the notion that the key to adoption will be the social interaction between members of the adopting group. Havelock (1973) argues that research has demonstrated fairly conclusively that all individuals go through the following adoption sequence-

1. Awareness

   In this initial stage the individual member of staff is exposed to the innovation, but may either be lacking complete information or may not be motivated to search for more. The member of staff is therefore passive in that awareness does not usually result from a need, but rather it creates a need for the innovation.

   The member of staff therefore discovers through the newly created awareness a new need. Thus the individual develops the need through becoming aware that an improved method or innovation exists. The individual (or group) is therefore motivated towards taking action.

2. Interest

   At the interest stage the individual member of staff begins to seek out additional information about the innovation, but has not yet judged its full usefulness to their own situation. During this seeking of additional information the member of staff's psychological involvement increases. As the search for information increases it increases the personal commitment of the member of staff which may well help in the later stages of adoption.

3. Evaluation

This stage may be viewed as the 'mental trial' during which the member of staff matches the innovation to either their present or anticipated situations before deciding whether or not to enter into the trial phase.

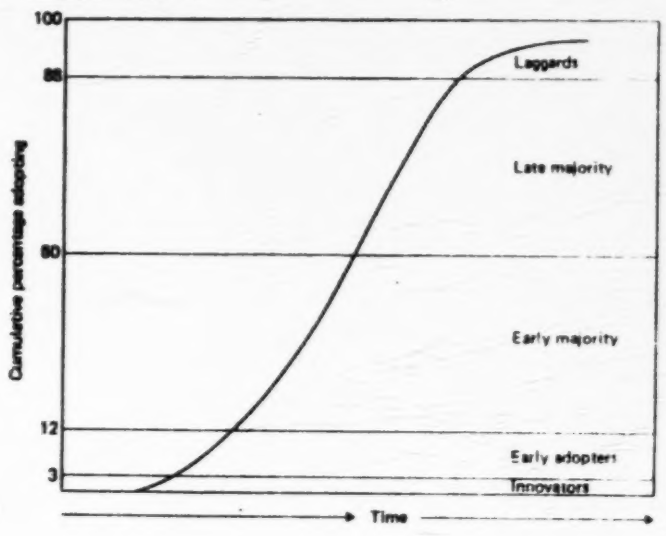
4. Trial

The trial stage follows if the 'mental trial' has proved favourable. In this stage the innovation is used on a limited scale in order to discover if it has real utility for the user. The main emphasis is therefore on testing the idea in situ to assess the usefulness of its complete adoption. The trial stage is critical in finalising the adoption or rejection of the innovation.

5. Adoption

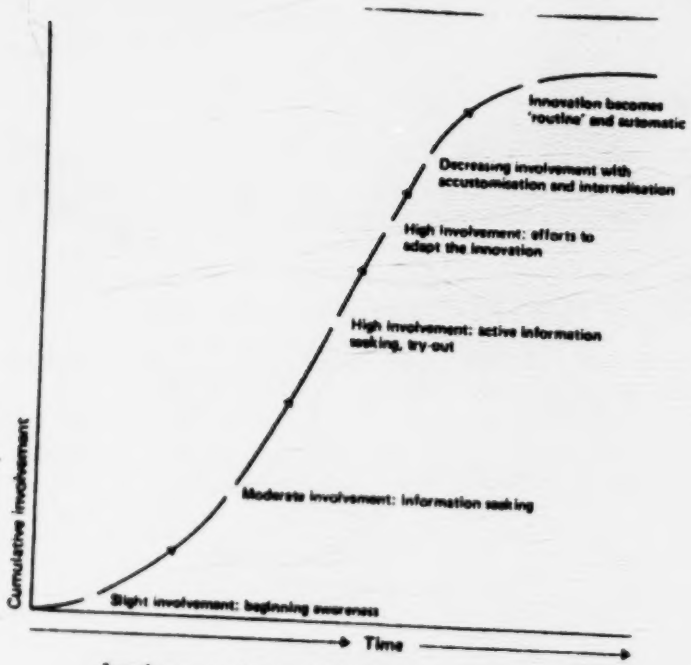
The results of the trial are next considered in detail and the decision to reject or adopt the innovation is taken. If the decision to adopt is made then the innovation becomes increasingly internalised and becomes accepted by the adopter.

The potential adopter will increasingly search for additional information as progress through the various stages is made. This information will cover the whole spectrum of personal contacts through to printed matter and other forms of media presentation. The early adopters or influentials may be cosmopolitans who have read more widely, travelled extensively, had more contact with experts and innovators, and are generally educated to a higher level. Some early adopters may be senior staff who are in the position of being able to enforce compliance through formal leadership. Others may be 'opinion leaders' whose advice is valued, or 'gatekeepers' who may be the informal leaders in the system (Havelock p 7,10,11). Morrish (p 73-74) uses the following diagrams to illustrate the adoption of an innovation.



Adoption as a Cumulative Curve

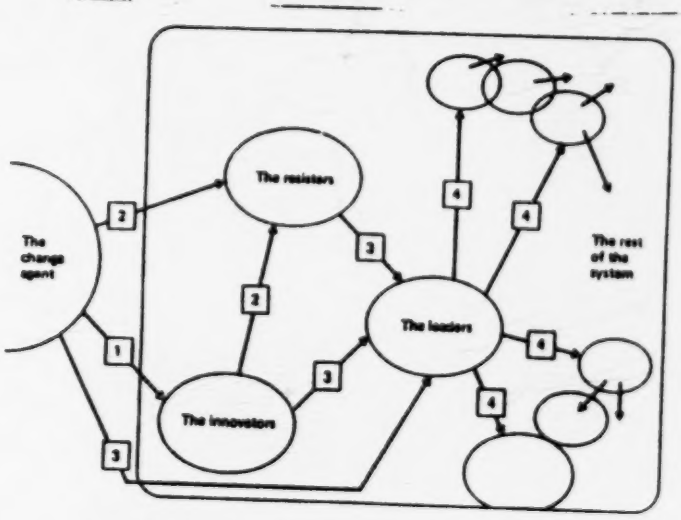
9


Innovation becomes 'routine' and automatic
Decreasing involvement with accustomisation and internalisation
High involvement: efforts to adapt the innovation
High involvement: active information seeking, try-out
Moderate involvement: information seeking
Slight involvement: beginning awareness
Cumulative involvement
Time

Involvement of an Individual during the Adoption Process

When it comes to getting groups of staff to accept a proposed innovation Lewin (1951) has demonstrated the importance of identifying and gaining the acceptance of the formal and informal leaders within the group. Identification of 'reference groups' is also important in the diffusion and adoption of new ideas.

The whole social-interactive model is illustrated below.



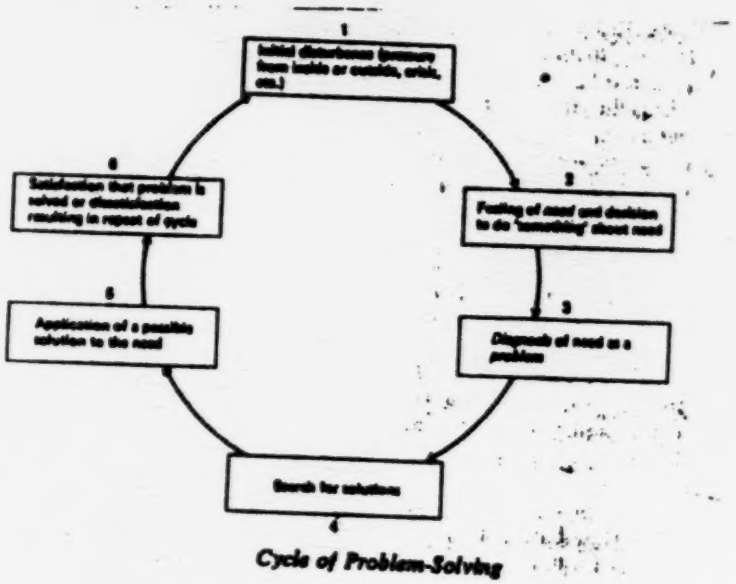
A 'Stepping Stone' Strategy for Gaining Group Acceptance

The Problem-Solving Model

This model is built upon the concept that although the person responsible for bringing about a change will look around for sources for guidance they still have to solve the actual problem.

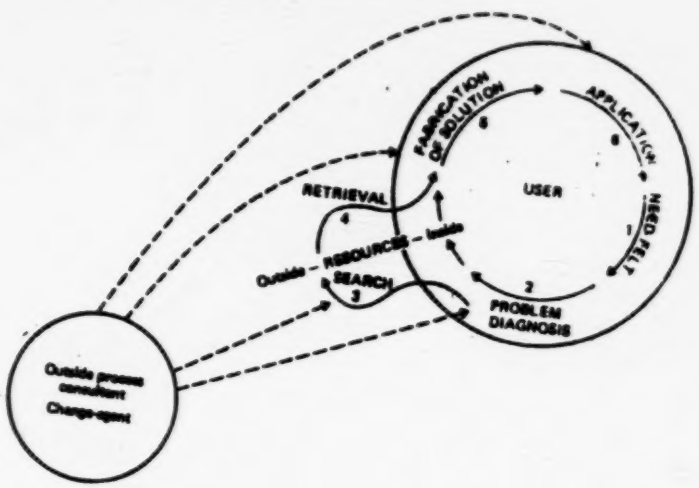
> "Either the change agent or the receiver may initiate the change process, but in either case the receiver must desire to change and must fully participate in affecting the change."
>
> (Havelock 1970, p 2.40 - 2.41, 10.53 - 10.70)

Whether for individuals or groups the same problem solving process is followed as illustrated below.



Cycle of Problem-Solving

The process may also be used with an outside change agent as shown below.



The Problem-Solver Perspective

Havelock (1970, p 11.13 - 11.15) has identified the five basic characteristics of the approach-

1. The User is the Starting Point

The model can be both inclusive and potentially irresponsible through the fact that those using it may have no interest in the ultimate fate of the innovation. This is because the processes contained in the model end when the innovation is accepted. It involves no follow up on appropriateness or acceptability of the innovation.

2. Diagnosis Precedes the Identification of Solutions

The model is a highly clinical one which concentrates on the users world in isolation from other considerations. Concentration tends to be on internal communications and interpersonal relationships, which explains the models emphasis on problem solving perspectives and human relations training. The model therefore sees the organisation as a network of groups and relationships which must be studied introspectively rather than technocratically.

3. The Outside Helping Role is Non-directive

The change agent or outside helper enjoys a specialist role which does not include problem solving for the client. The role is therefore concerned with guidance and training in how to carry out the problem solving. The helper therefore provides relevant inputs of knowledge, insights and recommendations, whilst encouraging the client to use their own diagnosis to solve the problem.

4. The Importance of Internal Resources is Recognised

Although the emphasis is upon bringing in new ideas it must be recognised that the existing system may not be using fully all the ideas and resources at its disposal. For as Havelock (p 11-14) suggests-

> "This home-grown and home-stored knowledge is probably going to be more relevant and more suitable for the solution of the problem at hand than the imported knowledge would be."

The model recognises this and attempts to tap into this reservoir of existing knowledge.

5. User-initiated Change is Strongest

The argument against those changes which are imposed by external authorities, imported from outside or directed by management is that they encompass a weak motivational base from the point of view of the user and therefore have the least prospect of a long-term survival. For success to happen it is vital that the innovation is accepted and internalised by the users.

Havelock (p 11-14) argues this point-

> "The user will be more likely to internalise an innovation that he sees as his own, something that he has accepted by his own free and deliberate choice to meet his own specific need, and something that he has worked on himself to adopt to his own specific need."

The arguments for internal motivation by those who have to accept and use the change is stressed throughout. Dalin (1978, p 69) uses slightly different characteristics for the social interaction model, these being-

"Research on this model tends to support five generalisations about the process of innovation diffusion-

1. that the individual user or adopter belongs to a network of social relations which largely influences his (her) adoption behaviour;

2. that his (her) place in the network (centrality, peripherality, isolation) is a good predictor of his (her) rate of acceptance of new ideas;

3. that informal personal contact is a vital part of the influence and adoption process;

4. that group membership and reference group identification are major predictors of individual adoption;

5. that the rate of diffusion through a social system follows a predictable S-curve pattern (very slow beginning follwed by a period of very rapid diffusion, followed in turn by a long, late adopter or 'laggard' period.

The Linkage Model

Havelock also introduces the concept of bringing the basic three approaches together into what he calls the linkage model. In the model he connects 'self-user need' to social interaction research and a development framework. Dalin (p 73) suggests that-

"The model may over-estimate or misrepresent the role that outsiders can play in motivating and advising local practitioners. Change strategies following this model would too frequently rely on 'imports' (either individual experts or particular fully developed products) and, in so doing, foreclose important individual and institutional opportunities to learn and develop or incorporate change as their own."

The Further Education Staff College

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Part D Managing the resistance

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BRINGING ABOUT CURRICULUM CHANGE
PAPER 4 MANAGING THE RESISTANCE

M J Field

Introduction

Those in education are often criticised for their conservative approach towards change.

This was referred to by Schon (1971) as dynamic conservatism. However, it can be argued that because of the number of innovations or pseudo innovations suggested for the service, often with little hard evidence about their effectiveness, the service has perhaps more reasons to resist change than it is often credited with.

In uncertainty, resistance can be a positive force as it sharpens up the need for sound evidence of the improvements which may flow from proposed changes.

Sarason (1971, p 59) argues that for educational change planners recognising and dealing with opposition

> "...is not a matter of choice, preference or personal aesthetics. The chances of achieving intended outcomes become near zero when the sources of opposition are not being faced, if only because it is tantamount to denial or avoidance or reality of existing social forces and relationships in a particular setting."

Resistance can be used to advantage because it provides data about the individuals or groups using it. This data may reflect resources and constraints affecting the individual or group, and it may provide insignts on the state of its relationship to other social systems within the organisation.

This kind and range of data can help those implementing change to plan their strategies. To this end it would appear to be important to distinguish between resistance whose premise is that-

(a) the proposed change is the wrong solution to an acknowledged problem, or

(b) the proposed change is irrelevant because there is no corresponding problem.

Zaltman & Duncan (1977) suggest that resistance can be defined as any conduct that serves to maintain the status quo in the face of pressure to alter the status quo.

Lippit (1974) suggests four categories relevant to both facilitating or hindering change in education-

1. Peer and authority relationships involving the dimensions of communication, competition for recognition, openness to ideas, peer supports, principal involvement, teacher participation, and provision for continuing education.

2. Personal attitudes involving such dimensions as openness to innovation, openness to outside assistance, dogmatism, group participativeness, optimism, and risk taking.

3. This area concerns the characteristics of practice, which includes such relevance to needs, commitment, behavioural change, and attitudes and value congruity.

4. Finally there are physical and temporal arrangements involving availability of time, clerical assistance, and opportunities for inter personal interaction.

POSSIBLE SOURCES OF RESISTANCE

1. Cultural Sources of Resistance

Those who draw comparison between performance in this country and others often suggest that cultural values and beliefs can form a major barrier to change.

As far back as Weber (1956) who postulated the notion of work ethic, and the lack of desire for upward mobility as major barriers to economic development. Through Rostow (1960) who suggests the lack of entrepreneurship to Hagen (1962) who suggests that the lack of achievement and autonomy in early childhood as forming social barriers, the notion of cultural differences and conditioning has been seen as an important element in viewing change. The subject is too deep to go into within the context of this paper other than to suggest that differences in culture can form barriers other than-

> If the change planner comes from a different culture than the target group for which the change is planned the planner may see his/her own culture as superior to the one in which s/he is working.
>
> The communication of such feelings of superiority, no matter how indirect or unintentional may create resistance towards the individual and thus to the advocated change.

Alternatively the group concerned may see their own culture as being superior and resist borrowing or adapting ideas from others. In these situations the underlying problem is often created through not involving the system to be changed in the planning process.

Even when clients have been involved in formulating the change they may be reluctant to adopt it if they were not adequately involved in defining the problem to which the change is addressed. Finally the different cultural perspectives held by both parties may result in different expectations of the commonly agreed outcome.

2. Social Sources of Resistance

Group Solidarity

Solidarity is concerned with the independence of the part of the system undergoing change with other parts of the same system. Lippit (1958, p 77) defines it as-

> "Readiness for change on one part of a system may be negated by the unwillingness or inability of other interdependent parts to change. A change sequence which would be strong enough to modify a subpart if it existed in isolation may have no effect on the system as a whole and consequently it may fail to have any real effect on any part of the system."

Walton (1973) refers to this as 'systematic coherence' arguing that coherence or interdependence can be a strong force for resistance if the subsystem which is the object of the change satisfies important needs or functions for other parts of the social system.

Resistance can also occur through the influence of reference groups. Where these are strong and the expectations of the target group are violated by taking up the advocated change. The more a reference group is threatened by a possible change, the more active it may become in expressing its opposition to the target or client group.

Rejection of outsiders is another source of resistance to change that is caused in part by a high degree of in-group identification.

Watson (1973, p 129) concludes-

> "A major problem in introducing social change is to secure enough local initiative and participation so the enterprise will not be vulnerable as a foreign importation."

One way of overcoming this resistance is to use the technique of second-order consequence. This is used by introducing a change whose second-order consequence is the actual intended change. Because the required change is a second order consequence it is less likely to be associated with the external change agent.

2. Conformity to Norms

Norms provide the behavioural guidelines in groups. They provide stability and are therefore essential to the effective functioning of any social system. The result of this is that any proposed change which is incompatible with the existing pattern will tend to be resisted. The critical question is that of "Why the members of the group participate in the maintenance of the norm?" The answer to this may enable the change to be modified to meet the norm expectations of the group.

3. Conflict & Frustration

The proposed change may suffer from guilt by association if it is accepted by a group who are in conflict with the group for whom the change is proposed. The second group may automatically reject the idea due to its association with the other group.

Frey (1969) also suggests that conflict may result from one of two anxieties that the group to whom the proposed change is to be applied may be feeling-

(a) The Conservative Anxiety

"Let's be careful about losing what we've got."

(b) The Radical Anxiety

"Let's be careful and clear out all this stuff and have a fresh breeze blow through."

The problem is that both reinforce each other so that, for example, if the radical anxiety holders communicate their anxieties effectively they reinforce the anxieties of the conservative group and vice-versa. However, where those holding the conservative anxiety are more numerous and powerful they tend to result in forcing the existing order to become further entrenched.

The positive side of conflict is its use as a force change. Conflict often causes those involved in it to be thoughtful when expressing their respective views, with the result that each has a more carefully constructed position towards the change. This is particularly true when those arguing from one position are challenged by their opponents. Where their position is likely to damage the effectiveness of the college, they are more likely to take this into account and to develop remedial contingency plans for the consequences of their actions.

4. Group Insight

When it comes to change in small groups Lippit (et al., 1958 p 181) argues that a major barrier to it may be-

"...the members' imperfect awareness of their own interpersonal processes and their lack of a frame of reference in which to judge their performance and their possibilities for improvement."

Eaton (1962) suggests that absence of the above form of feedback may be rooted in resistance to the conduct of evaluation and/or a reluctance to use the findings of evaluation. Concern with these kinds of problem has resulted in specific organisational development techniques being developed for educational systems, such as survey feedback, collective decision making and other problem solving techniques (see Cooke et al, 1974).

3. ORGANISATIONAL SOURCES OF RESISTANCE

Structural Characteristics

As with other observers Zaltman, Duncan and Holbeck (1973) have postulated that certain structural characteristics of organisations may either facilitate or resist change. For example-

Complexity

A complex organisation which has to perform many different roles will often initiate change more readily than a comparatively less complex organisation. This would appear to be because the larger number of different roles increases the likelihood it will encounter innovation.

Decentralisation

Decentralisation of authority and responsibility can help with the initiation of change because a larger number of individuals are in the position to explore the possibility of its introduction. However, where the innovation may affect several people it may be more difficult to implement if there is no centralised authority in the position of bringing them together.

The concept of a 'differentiated' approach to organisations is suggested in which it would be complex and decentralised in the initial phases of change and become less complex and more centralised during the later implementation stage.

Rigidity

Organisational regidity can be another source of resistance towards change and Hawley (1974) suggests the following symptoms and consequences of its affect-

Restricted Decision Making
If the key decision making is restricted to a narrow range of staff, i.e. HOD then other staff will have little opportunity

for innovation due to lack of freedom to introduce new ideas.

High Standardisation

Highly standardised routines for say dealing with students, partents, and symptoms of resistance to change. These can include restrictions on student movement, pre-scheduled and limited periods for teaching and so on. Each of these examples has its own rationale. However, in aggregate they produce a substantial side effect, which is to offer uniformity and security at the expense of innovation.

In essence, what I am arguing is that where teachers have little deligated authority to experiment, have restricted channels for horizontal communication, little professional interaction and, little opportunity for involvement in developing the policies and matters which affect them, the result will be resistance to change and an environment in which innovation will be difficult.

Inadequate Communication

Poor communications within the college can provide yet another source of resistance to change. Although effective upwards communication is an important element in management control, the fact that staff often experience their problems in self contained classrooms provides them with little opportunity to convey to management problems which require attention. This situation may be made all the more difficult through the Principal/Staff relationship which has built into it the dual role of manager and colleague. Sarason (1971, p 120) describes the problems associated with being both manager and colleague.

> "The principal views going into the classroom for purposes of evaluation and change as an act that will be viewed by the teacher as a hostile intrusion. The presence of a principal in a classroom, particularly if it is in the context of a problem in that classroom, is experienced by the teacher with anxiety and/or hostility... From the standpoint of the principal there is little that he feels he can do about what goes on in a classroom.... As a result, the principal tolerates situations that by his values or standards are 'wrong'. Because this toleration is frequently accompanied by feelings of guilt and inadequacy, it frequently has an additional consequence; the tendency to deny that these situations exist in school."

A further barrier may result from a lack of communications between colleges within the same authority. This lack of inter-college communications prevents a sharing of ideas and experiences and may also cause staff to face inwards towards their own problems to the extent that they fail to recognise the problems of others.

Gatekeeping

Gatekeepers are those in organisations who have sufficient control over the flows of information to manipulate its throughput for the rest of the system. They are a particularly important influence in those systems like colleges where the need for changes in the system may be unclear or vague and thus require as much information as possible for those making decisions. Nagie (1974, p 53) describes the importance of the influence of gatekeepers thus-

> "When the services of an organisation are controversial, gatekeeping decisions will be influenced less by organisational less by organisational norms and more by the orientations of individual decision makers."

The literature suggests that gatekeepers can be relatively more influential in the adoption or rejection of change in college organisations. This is particularly true when the proposed change is incompatible with the personal views of the gatekeeper. In these situations the gatekeeper may act as a barrier to the introduction of the change by controlling the information passed onto the other organisation members.

Other Organisational Barriers

Resistance may also result from-

Unclear definitions of decision making authority and responsibility can result in resistance through uncertainty,

New organisations may offer resistance where the internal organisational problems associated with its start-up have not been sorted out,

Old and highly formalised organisations may also resist changes in their set (proved) ways of doing things.

Change may also be difficult if it goes against the existing internal power structure.

In essence the absence of a positive philosophy towards change in the social system will cause a lack of any systematic support towards encouraging or reinforcing the willingness to change.

Rogers (1973, p 75-86) puts forward a number of propositions about existing social systems and their attitudes towards change. These being-

Power elites which tend to prevent or oppose innovations that threaten to structure the social system. They will attempt to do this initially by preventing the basic idea of an innovation or change from entering the social system (through censorship of information).

Leaders will attempt to alter in a way favourable to them the

nature of any advocated change and the nature and distribution of the consequences of the change. These attempts to alter the change and its consequences may not be consistent with the change planners intention and hence represent a form of resistance.

Change initiated at the grass roots level (bottom-up change) is likely to encounter resistance by power elites.

Rogers-

> "The power structure of a system is a force toward the success of top down change, whereas it works against bottom-up change."

In essence, Rogers is arguing that those wishing to introduce change should work through or with the existing power structure, or at least ensure that the change offers little threat to it.

PSYCHOLOGICAL SOURCES OF RESISTANCE

Selective Perception & Retention

Perception is perhaps the most important psychological barrier towards change. Indeed Watson (1973, p 121) argues that selective perception and retention may act to prevent an individual from seeing that the existing situation is inadequate. This is because those concerned may not recognise the problem or see any solution to it. Resistance to change may also arise when the initiator and the group both recognise the problem but are unable to share a common perception of its nature and course. In this situation the result is likely to be a different perception of how the remedy should be applied.

Lack of Clarity about the Change Itself

Gloss (1971) writing about the catalythical model of change suggests that lack of clarity can be a major obstacle to change particularly ambiguity and its effects on-

Resistance	due to lack of clarity about the behaviours required by the change.
Planning	will be inadequate as the ability to communicate requirements will be difficult.
Information	will be incomplete and may result in abortion due to unexpected negative outcomes. This may cause a barrier to future change.

Insecurity

Staff insecurity can be an important source of resistance, particularly when it manifests itself in uncertainty and anxiety

about their ability to perform. Management expectations and the use of evaluation systems may also result in insecurity and, through it, resistance to change. It is argued that staff insecurity related to performance evaluation will be greater when they have little say in the decision to establish the system or involvement in its design. In these situations the staff may withdraw from the problem or transfer it to others.

Homeostasis

Resistance through homeostasis is caused by the system attempting to return to its previous state. Watson (1973) suggests that although organisations are not naturally complacent, they seek a comfortable level of arousal and stimulation and try to maintain that state. The line of argument usually followed from this is that where changes result in a level of arousal and stimulation well above that which is normally comfortable, the tendency will be to avoid or resist the change.

There are many factors which may cause homeostasis. For example Lippit (1958, p 180-181) suggests that reluctance to having to admit weaknesses, the awkwardness and fear of failure associated with doing something new, bad experiences with post change efforts, and concern about the possible loss of present satisfaction can all result in the homeostasis effect occuring.

Conformity & Commitment

Kiesler & Kiesler (1970) and Homes (1974) argue that conformity and commitment can become powerful forces working against any proposed change.

Professional Training

Professional training and the processes involved in the professional socialisation process with its associated pressures for conformity and commitment can lead to resistance to change.

SOURCES OF RESISTANCE BUILT INTO THE CHANGE ITSELF

Resistance may develop at any of the following stages-

AWARENESS STAGE

The Change Itself

- may be weak in design or inadequately thought through and developed,
- may be difficult to communicate, therefore the ease with which it can be explained and disseminated may be especially important during the awareness stage,
- may require a number of 'gatekeepers' to bring it to the

attention of those required to change,

- may require its 'perceived relative advantage' clearly demonstrated to cause interest and raise motivation levels sufficiently to be taken on by those likely to be affected by it,

- may require a demonstration of clear advantage to sustain interest.

COMPREHENSION STAGE

Complexity

At this stage the complexity of the change becomes important. If the change is either complex in operation or has a complex underlying theory it may be difficult to get across to those affected.

Radicalness

If the change is too radical it may cause resistance during the comprehension stage. Even when a change is easy to introduce it may meet resistance if it represents a major departure from existing practice.

Demonstrability

The ability to demonstrate the advantages of the change is particularly important during the comprehension stage.

In essence, the more complex or radical the proposed change the more important it is to be able to demonstrate its advantages. Within this context it is important that demonstrations should actively involve and demonstrate to the staff rather than be 'Tell and Sell' presentations.

ATTITUDE FORMATION STAGE

The source or point of origin of the proposed change can become an important element in its acceptance. For example, Turnbull (1974, p 8) suggests that-

> "The institutional prestige of the developer or disseminator may impress the purchasers."

The reverse is also true, as a change which originates from or is otherwise associated with a poorly regarded source may face resistance.

The compatability of the change with the existing social and technical environment will also be important at this stage.

LEGITIMATION STAGE

This stage occurs when the change is considered appropriate and becomes accepted. It does not follow that the change will be considered as actually being worth adopting but rather that it does not violate the groups basic norms and values. It is important to recognise that the compatability of the change to the cultural and technical setting to which it is being applied will be an important factor in determining whether and to what extent resistance will develop. Kasulis (1975) also suggests that the size of the decision making body who are involved in approving the change may have an influence on its perceived appropriateness. Kasulis' argument being that the larger the decision group, the more appropriate will the change be by the non-decision group members.

TRIAL STAGE

Several factors may develop into barriers to the change during its trial stage, of which irreversibility appears to be a major source of reluctance. Linked to this is resistance to those changes which cannot be tried on a small scale before their adoption, because the opportunity cost of the change may be considered to be too high.

EVALUATION STAGE

During the evaluation stage such factors as the level of perceived risk and uncertainty come into play, along with the intellectual status of the proposed change, its susceptibility to modification, the efficiency of the change, the estimated influence of its adoption on subsequent opportunities for change, all become important. Along with its-

Persuasiveness

In the sense that the bigger the impact of the proposed change on the existing system and the amount by which it must be amended to accommodate the change, the more reluctant the system will be to acknowledge its necessity.

Impact on Inter-personal Relations

Cooke (1974) suggests that the impact of any change on the existing pattern of inter-personal relations may be particularly important for both curriculum and organisational structure change.

Financial Costs

Both the initial (start up) and ongoing costs become important considerations during the adoption and resolution stages. It often follows that if the operating costs in both financial and non-financial terms become to be considered as being too high the change is likely to be dropped.

Unavailability of Resources

Sikorski & Hutchens (1974) present a model in which the unavailability of resources for implementing and sustaining the change becomes a major concern.

Personality Factors

In their review of the literature on change Rogers & Shoemaker (1971, p 187-188) put forward the notion that the following personal factors are important to the acceptance of change.

- low empathetic ability
- high dogmatism
- inability to deal with abstractions
- fatalism, and
- low achievement motivation

D.W. Johnson (1969, p 143-153) also suggests that a lack of conceptual and enquiring skills in the staff affected by the change may reduce their motivation and their ability to re-examine, evaluate and amend their behaviour. Lack of creativity on the part of the staff is seen by Barnett (1953) to be a barrier to change as is tolerance of ambiguity, Grinstaff (1969) and a willingness to take risks.

Homan (1974) suggests that the presence of incompatability on personal level between the change advocate and the group affected by the change will also cause resistance. Sikes (1974, p 38-45) describes the following as possible sources of resistance-

- difficulty of demonstrating value of change
- difficult role of change agent
- parochialism
- ambiguous role of administrators
- lack of change-oriented concepts and skills
- change-oriented people not in mainstream
- discouraging policies and practices
- difficulties of maintaining volunteer efforts

Havelock & Havelock (1973, p 153) have identified a number of barriers to change.

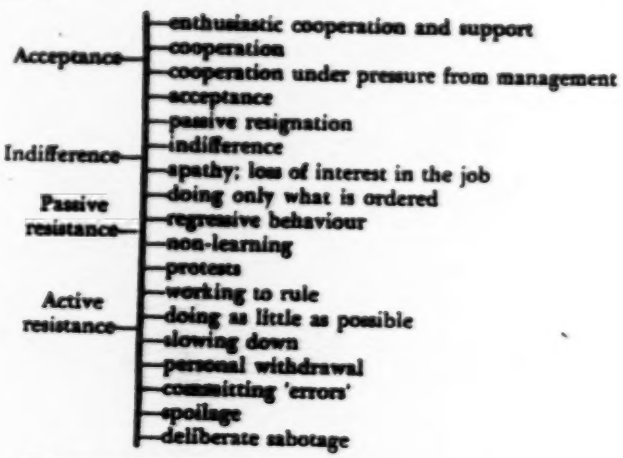
Summary

Forms of rejection-

A Framework for the Identification of Forms of Rejection

Form of Rejection	Cause of Rejection	State of Subject	Anticipated Rejection Response
1. Ignorance	Lack of dissemination	Uninformed	'The information is not easily available.'
2. Suspended judgement	Data not *logically* compelling	Doubtful	'I want to see how good it is before I try.'
3. Situational	Data not *materially* compelling	(a) Comparing	'Other things are equally good.'
		(b) Defensive	'The school regulations will not permit it.'
		(c) Deprived	'It costs too much to use in time and/or money.'
4. Personal	Data not *psychologically* compelling	(a) Anxious	'I don't know if I can operate equipment.'
		(b) Guilty	'I know I should use them, but I don't have time.'
		(c) Alienated	'These gadgets will never replace a teacher.' 'If we use these gadgets they might replace us.'
5. Experimental	Present or past trials	Convinced	'I tried them once and they proved to be absolutely no good.'

Levels of Acceptance-



The spectrum of possible behaviour towards a change.

The Further Education Staff College

INFORMATION BANK

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Title

Bringing about curriculum change
Part E Estimating resistance

Author

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BRINGING ABOUT CURRICULUM CHANGE
PAPER 5 ESTIMATING RESISTANCE

M J Field

Checklists to Aid Estimation of Resistance

The following checklists should prove helpful to those identifying the possible anticipated gains and losses from a change. With intimate knowledge of the situation and of those involved, they should be able to select from these lists the responses likely to occur.

Also, they should be able to translate them into more specific terms to suit the circumstances. These typical responses are arranged according to the principal reasons for resisting and accepting changes.

Possible reasons for resisting changes (Assumed losses: negative values)	Possible reasons for accepting changes (Assumed gains: positive values)
Feared economic losses	**Anticipated economic gains**
I am being asked to do more work for the same pay.	I shall be able to earn more money.
This change will result in a speed up of the work. My pay will be reduced.	My opportunities for advancement will be greater.
Fewer skills will be required of me. My pay will be reduced in the long run.	I shall be able to develop new or additional skills that will enhance my value and increase my opportunities for earning more.
I shall be losing much of the overtime that I have been getting.	
My opportunities for advancement will be reduced.	
Fears about personal security inconvenience	**Hopes about personal security convenience**
The new situation requires me to learn a new technology or new skills. I doubt that I shall be able to do it.	The security of my job with the company will be increased because I shall be in a higher classification of work.
I doubt that I shall be able to meet the new standards of the job that will be required.	The security of my job with the company will be greater because the importance of my work has been increased.

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I shall be held responsible for quality defects of for the control of quality which I may not be able to influence.

The new situation will involve an increase in safety hazards for me.

This change will make some people redundant. I don't want to lose my job.

I shall be more vulnerable to redundancy in the event of future reductions in business activity.

I doubt that I shall be able to handle the increased responsibility.

The security of my job with the company will be greater because the competitive position of the company will be stronger.

My work will be safer because my exposure to injury or other hazards will be reduced.

Fears about increased personal

The new conditions of work will be less pleasant (physical, environment, location, travel, hours).

The work will be more difficult.

I shall have to work harder.

Hopes of increased personal convenience

My work will be easier.

My conditions of work will be more pleasant (physical, environment, location, travel, hours).

I shall not have to work as hard.

This change will interfere with my personal life (different hours more travel, etc).

I shall have to change what I have become accustomed to over the years. What is wrong with the way I am working now?

This change is an improvement in my personal life (more desireable hours, travel, etc).

Fears about decreased job satisfaction

This new job will be less interesting.

Hopes of increased job satisfaction

This job will be more interesting.

There is less challenge in the new job.	There will be more challenge.
The pressures on me will be greater (or different).	The pressures on me will be less (or different).
I shall have less (or more) responsibility.	I shall have more (or less responsibility).
My authority is being reduced.	My authority is being increased.
I shall be receiving much more (or less) supervision.	I shall be receiving much less (or more) supervision.
This new job is less important than what I am now doing.	This job is more important than what I am now doing.
This new job really does not require my qualifications and training.	This new job will make better use of my qualifications and training.
This new situation will be very restrictive. I shall have less opportunity to contribute my ideas and suggestions.	I shall have more opportunity to contribute my ideas and suggestions.
This will not fit at all into my long range career plans.	This will fit nicely into my long range career plans.
<u>Irritation with manner of handling the change</u>	<u>Satisfaction with manner of handling the change</u>
I am unhappy about being picked on. They have something against me.	I'm quite flattered that I was selected to try out this difficult task.
No one asked my opinion. I could tell them a thing or two.	It is satisfying to know that my ideas and suggestions are being sought and are welcomed.
If we go through with this, there's no turning back. I don't like the idea of burning our bridges behind us.	This change is really pioneering a new method (or field of endeavour). It is exciting to be able to be a part of this effort.
This is being done in too much of a hurry. I would like an opportunity to think this over for a time.	It is gratifying to realise that we are being given the full story on this change and that we shall be able to get answers to our questions.

This change is really unnecessary. I see no reason to change.

This change is obviously important, and I'm proud to be part of it.

Misunderstanding of the reasons for the change and ascribing incorrect motives.

I don't like having things rammed down my throat.

This idea is no better than what we are now doing. How is it that he is such an expert? How can he know better than me, he doesn't even work here.

He has a nerve implying that we've been having an easy time of it up to now. We've been working hard and doing a fine job.

This change comes as quite a shock. It has come so suddenly and unexpectedly.

Social fears

I shall lose status.

If I cooperate with this change the others will think ill of me. My future relationships will be affected adversely.

I shall be less in contact with what is going on in the company (or department).

I don't like working by myself. I enjoy working as part of a team.

I'm worried about having Y as a supervisor. He has a poor reputation. I doubt that we shall be able to hit it off very well.

Social anticipations

My status will be enhanced or improved.

My opportunities for social contacts with others on the job will be increased.

I shall have increased access to information about what is going on in the company (or department).

I shall enjoy working as part a group.

I shall like working for X. He is a good supervisor.

This change will damage my relationships with my customers (or suppliers or other persons outside the company).

I shall be establishing precedents by cooperating with this change. I shall be committing other people to follow my example.

The Union will take a dim view of my involvement in the change. I shall be affecting their relationship with the company.

I shall have to leave my old workmates. I like it where I am. I have no desire to have to make new friends.

I don't want to cause others to be made redundant.

Cultural beliefs

This change goes against what I know to be true. Such a change is inconceivable. It will never work.

This change is inconsistent with what I believe in.

Why should I cooperate with management anyway? This is the thin end of the wedge.

My contacts with suppliers (or customers or other persons outside the company) will be improved.

I shall enjoy having that group as my subordinates.

Estimation Balance Sheet

The factors working for and against the curriculum change can finally be arranged into a balance sheet of which the following is an example.

BALANCE SHEET

Resistance		Acceptance	
Estimated losses	Importance	Estimated gains	Importance
Economic		**Economic**	
----------	—	----------	—
----------	—	----------	—
Security		**Security**	
----------	—	----------	—
----------	—		
----------	—		
Inconvenience		**Convenience**	
----------	—	----------	—
----------	—	----------	—
----------	—		
Satisfactions		**Satisfactions**	
----------	—	----------	—
----------	—	----------	—
		----------	—
Social		**Social**	
----------	—	----------	—
----------	—		
----------	—		
Manner of change		**Manner of change**	
----------	—	----------	—
----------	—	----------	—
Cultural beliefs		----------	—
----------	—	----------	—
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The work in this paper is taken from Judson: A Manager's Guide to Making Changes pages 58-64.